CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE NEW KEMPER 69kV TRANSMISSION PROJECT, DILLON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 510

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of an approximately 0.5 mile corridor and 3.2 acre substation in eastern Dillon County, South Carolina near the town of Lake View. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The corridor is to be used by Central Electric Power Cooperative for the construction of a transmission line, which will connect a new substation to two existing transmission lines. There is an existing substation at the convergence of the existing transmission lines that will be retired. The topography starts at a ridge toe for the new substation and decreases in elevation to the west toward the wetlands of Mile Branch.

The proposed route will require the clearing of the corridor, followed by construction of the proposed transmission line and substation. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project corridor. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile around the proposed transmission project was assumed.

The Archsite GIS was consulted for any previously recorded archaeological and architectural sites. No sites were found in the 0.5 mile APE.

The archaeological survey of the corridor incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the 75-foot right-of-way, which was marked by stakes. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh with a total of 29 shovel tests excavated along the corridor with 33 shovel tests excavated in the substation area.

As a result of this survey, one site (38DN166) was identified. The site consists of the remains of a nineteenth to twentieth century tenant structure. It is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

A survey of public roads within a 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old that also retained their integrity. No such sites were found.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project consists of a 0.5 mile corridor and 3.2 acre lot to be used for a 69kV transmission line and substation in eastern Dillon County, near the town of Lake View (Figure 1). The project runs approximately north-south between a proposed substation and an existing substation that will be retired along S-41 (Figure 2). Two existing transmission lines also culminate at this point.

The proposed corridor, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used as a transmission line. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing, and construction, including erection of poles, will damage the ground surface and any archaeological resources that may be present in the survey area.

Construction and maintenance of the transmission line and substation may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. The project will not directly affect any historic structures (since none are located on the survey corridor), but the completed facility may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what many consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile radius around the proposed survey corridor.

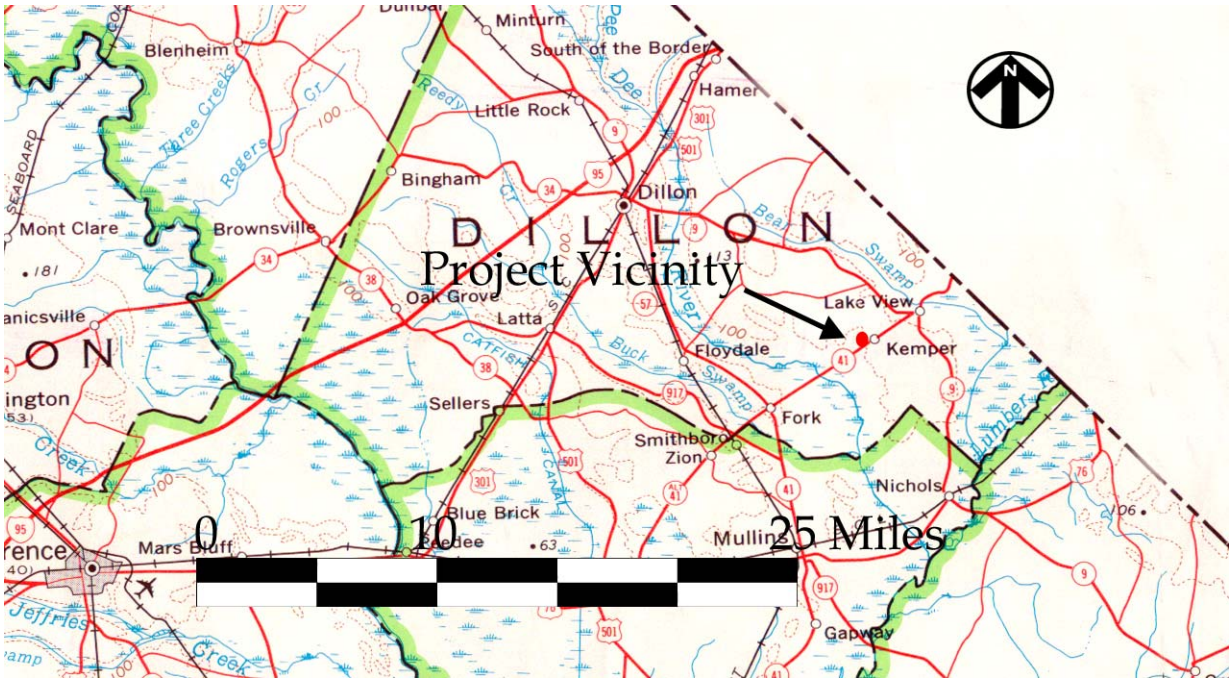

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Dillon County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Dillon County.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to conduct a cultural resources survey for the project on January 14, 2009.

These investigations incorporated a consultation of the Archisite GIS to check for any

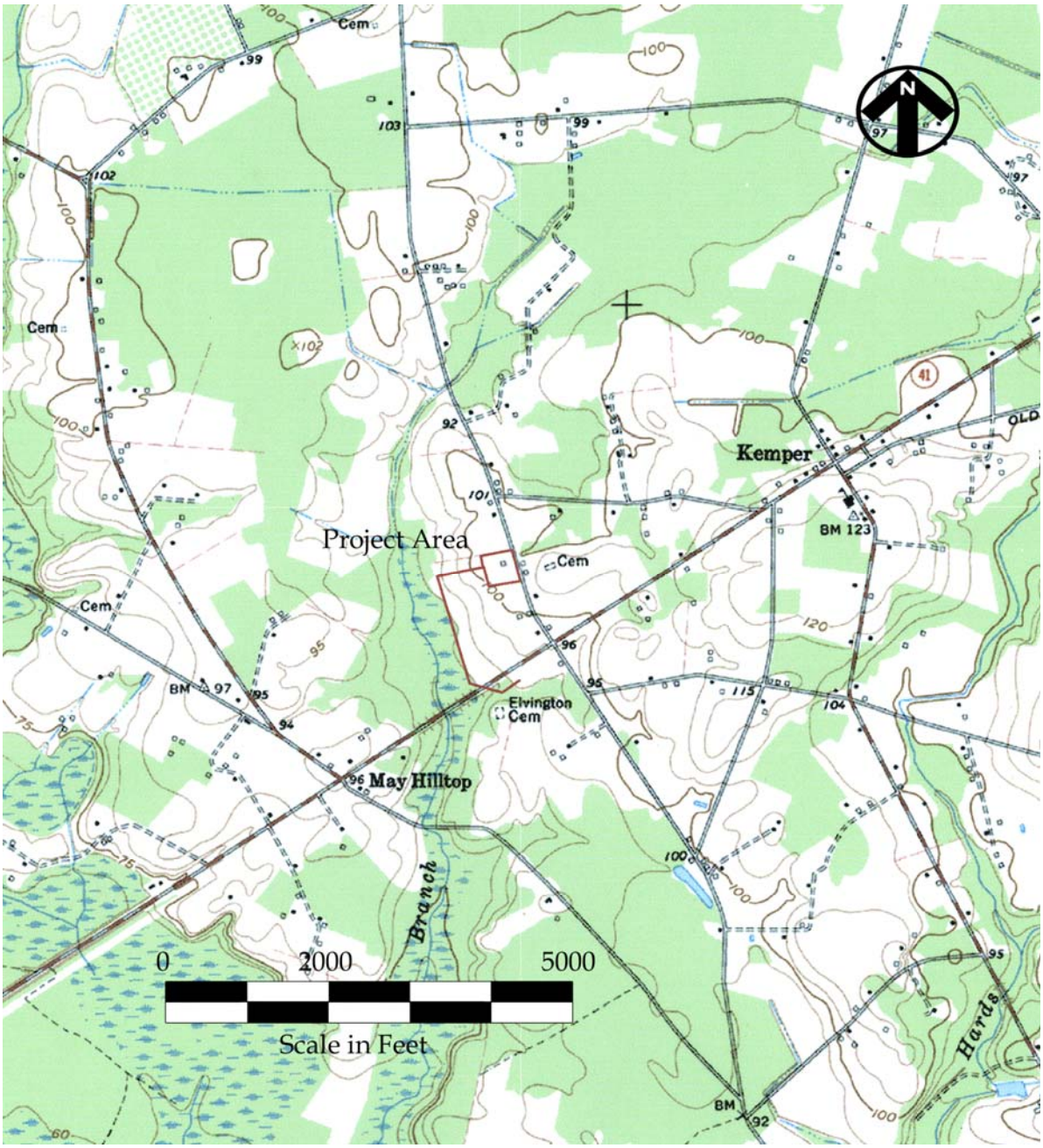

Figure 2. Project corridor (basemap is USGS Lake View 7.5′).

archaeological or NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. No resources were found in the APE.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on February 10, 2009 by Ms. Nicole Southerland and Ms. Ashley Guba under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age that retain their integrity and were potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places, revealed no such structures.

Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from January 11-13, 2009. The only photographic materials associated with this project are digital images, which are not archival, and will be retained for only 90 days.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Dillon County is situated in the Inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded on the southwest by the Great Pee Dee River, on the south by Marion and Florence counties, on the southeast by the Lumber River, on the northeast by North Carolina, and on the west by Marlboro County. The land primarily consists of gently rolling hills with elevations ranging from about 42 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) in parts of the river floodplains to a high of about 170 feet AMSL in the northern part of the county (Dudley 1978:1).

The Great Pee Dee River and the Lumber River flow past the county on the southwest and southeast edges. Their main tributaries include Poccosin Swamp, Gum Swamp, and Beaverdam Creek. The Little Pee Dee River flows through the center of the county. Next to the project area is Mile Branch, which flows to the Little Pee Dee River about two miles to the southwest.

The study area is situated in the eastern portion of Dillon County. The proposed substation is adjacent to Rabbit Island Road (S-74) while the existing substation is located on SC 41 to the south. The proposed substation sits on a ridge toe at an elevation of about 100 feet AMSL from which the transmission corridor runs west through fallow fields down to an elevation of about 85 feet AMSL, following the wetlands of Mile Branch south. The existing substation sits at an elevation of about 90 feet AMSL.

Geology and Soils

Figure 3. View of the proposed substation lot in a fallow field (pine trees in the rear of the photo are the ditch that comprises the north edge of the property).

The geology is characteristic of the Coastal Plain. The parent materials of the soils are marine or fluvial deposits that consist of varying amounts of sands, silts, and clays. There are three terrace formations in the county formed during the Pleistocene Period. The Sunderland terrace is about 100 to 170 feet AMSL and makes up most of Dillon County. The Wicomico terrace, which includes the project area, is about

70 to 100 feet AMSL and consists of the area along the Little Pee Dee River Swamp and its tributaries. The Penholoway terrace is about 42 to 70 feet AMSL. It makes up stream terrace soils along the Great Pee Dee, the Little Pee Dee, and the Lumber Rivers (Dudley 1978:56-57).

The project area contains six soil series – mostly moderately well drained to well drained soils. The moderately well drained soils account for 3% of the total area and include the Clarendon Series. Well drained soils, accounting for 63% of the total area, include the Dothan, Fuquay, and Varina series. About 4% of the project area consists of the somewhat poorly drained Lynchburg Series, while 30% of the project area – all along Mile Branch – is the Johnston-Rutlege association. Both Johnston and Rutlege soils are very poorly drained.

Clarendon soils have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy sand to a depth of 0.7 foot over a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) loamy sand to a depth of 1.3 feet.

Dothan soils, which occur in slopes from 2-6%, have an Ap horizon of brown (10YR4/3) sandy loam to 1.1 feet in depth over a yellowish brown (10YR5/8) sandy clay loam to a depth of 1.8 feet. Fuquay soils, occurring on slopes from 0-6%, have an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) sand to 0.7 foot over a light yellowish brown (2.5Y6/4) sand to 2.8 feet in depth. The Varina Series, which occur on slopes from 2-6%, have an Ap horizon of grayish brown (2.5Y5/2) sandy loam to 0.6 foot over a pale yellow (2.5Y7/4) loamy sand to 1.2 feet in depth.

Lynchburg soils have an Ap horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) loamy fine sand to 0.5 foot in depth over a light olive brown (2.5Y5/4) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.8 foot.

The Johnston-Rutlege association occurs in the frequently flooded area next to Mile Branch. Johnston soils generally have an A horizon of black (10YR2/1) mucky loam to 2.5 feet in depth over a dark gray (10YR4/1) loamy fine sand to 2.8 feet in depth. Rutlege soils have an A horizon of black (10YR2/1) loamy sand to 1.3 feet in depth over a dark gray (10YR4/1) sand to a depth of 2.9 feet.

Mills comments that the swampland soils are composed of the "richest soil." He notes that "[w]hile the swamp lands reclaimed and secured from freshets, will bring 50 dollars an acre; and the oak and hickory lands 15 dollars an acre; the pine lands will scarcely sell for 1 dollar per acre" (Mills 1972[1826]:623). He also observed that "[o]ff the water courses the situations are healthy," but "[a]s the swamps are the principal sources of disease in this country, it is much to be regretted that measures are not taken to drain, or reclaim them, which would not only secure the blessing of health to the people, but afford an immense quantity for rich soil for cultivation to the district" (Mills 1972[1826]:625). The products cultivated during that time were "cotton, corn, wheat, pease, and potatoes" (Mills 1972[1826]:623).

Climate

The general climate of the Dillon County area is characterized by mild humid conditions. This climate is influenced by the warm Gulf Stream, as well as by the Appalachian Mountains, which block the coldest air masses. Other factors include latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracts of migratory cyclones. Day to day weather is controlled primarily by the movement of pressure systems across the nation. However, during the summer months there are few complete exchanges of air masses because tropical maritime air persists for extended periods (Dudley 1978).

The average annual precipitation in the Dillon area is 46 inches and is unevenly distributed throughout the year, with 29 inches occurring from April through October, which is the primary growing season (Dudley 1978).

The climate, according to Mills (1972[1826]:625), "taking the whole year round, is

pleasant." The annual average temperature in Dillon is 61˚F, and the average monthly temperature ranges from 42˚F in January to 79˚F in July. Frozen precipitation occurs only one to three times a year during the winter season. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable air produces frequent scattered showers and thunderstorms in the summer. Severe weather usually means violent thunderstorms, tornadoes, and hurricanes. The tropical storm season is in late summer and early fall, although storms may occur as early as May or as late as October (NOAA 1977). Heavy rains and high winds occur with tropical storms about once every six years. Storms of hurricane intensity are much more infrequent. Droughts have occurred twice in modern times-- in 1925 and 1954. Less severe dry periods have occurred more often, normally in late spring or in autumn (Dudley 1978).

Figure 4. View of the low, wet areas along the project corridor.

Floristics

There are two major categories of plant communities that exist in the Coastal Plain area where there is nearly level topography. The first category consists of upland vegetation. Supported here are a mixture of coniferous and deciduous forests dominated by pines and broadleaf taxa such as upland oaks, sweetgum, hickories, and various understory species.

Lowland forests are located on the floodplains of the Pee Dee, Little Pee Dee, and Lumber rivers. This floodplain is 30 to 40 feet lower in elevation and is clearly defined by a scarp. These floodplain soils are forested with black cypress, gum, sycamore, water hickory, lowland oaks, soft maples, willows, and other herbaceous species.

In the early nineteenth century, Mills observed that:

> the long leafed pine is most abundant of the forest trees; next the cypress, various kinds of oak, the hickory, tupelo &c. Of fruit trees the peach, apple, pear, plum, &c. are common (Mills 1972[1826]:624).

Mills also observed that the major use of these forest resources was construction, also noting that "good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick" (Mills 1972[1826]625). Only lime, largely made of burnt shells, needed to be imported into the area (primarily from neighboring Georgetown). Mills encouraged the residents to make better use of their local "shell limestone" for lime, a suggestion that appears to have made little impact in the local economy (Mills 1972[1826]:628).

Today, about a third of Dillon County's uplands have been cleared for cultivation. In fact, a portion of the survey area is situated in fallow

fields. The remainder of the corridor is found in frequently flooded wetland areas of Mile Branch.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Previous Research

Although considerable research has been conducted in the lower coastal plain of South Carolina, little scholarly research has focused on the region inland to the fall line. As of 1991, 14 of the 15 archaeological studies (93.3%) conducted in Dillon County have involved highway construction and have examined only very small, isolated areas of the County (Derting et al. 1991). The remaining project involved a historic preservation survey and plan (see Derting et al. 1991). More recently, Dillon County has had more substation surveys (see Trinkley 1998 and Trinkley and Southerland 2002).

Prehistoric Overview

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's *Formative Cultures* (Coe 1964), as well as some newer general overviews (such as Sassaman et al. 1990 and Goodyear and Hanson 1989). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic and by Anderson et al. (1992) for the Paleoindian and Early Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study area. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I*. Figure 5 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

Prehistory of the Region

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Points usually associated with this period include the Clovis and several variants, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton (Goodyear et al. 1989: 36-38).

At least seven Paleoindian points have been found in the nearby Marion County area, clustered along the Pee Dee and Little Pee Dee Rivers (Goodyear et al. 1989:33). This pattern of artifacts found along major river drainages has been interpreted by Michie to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the

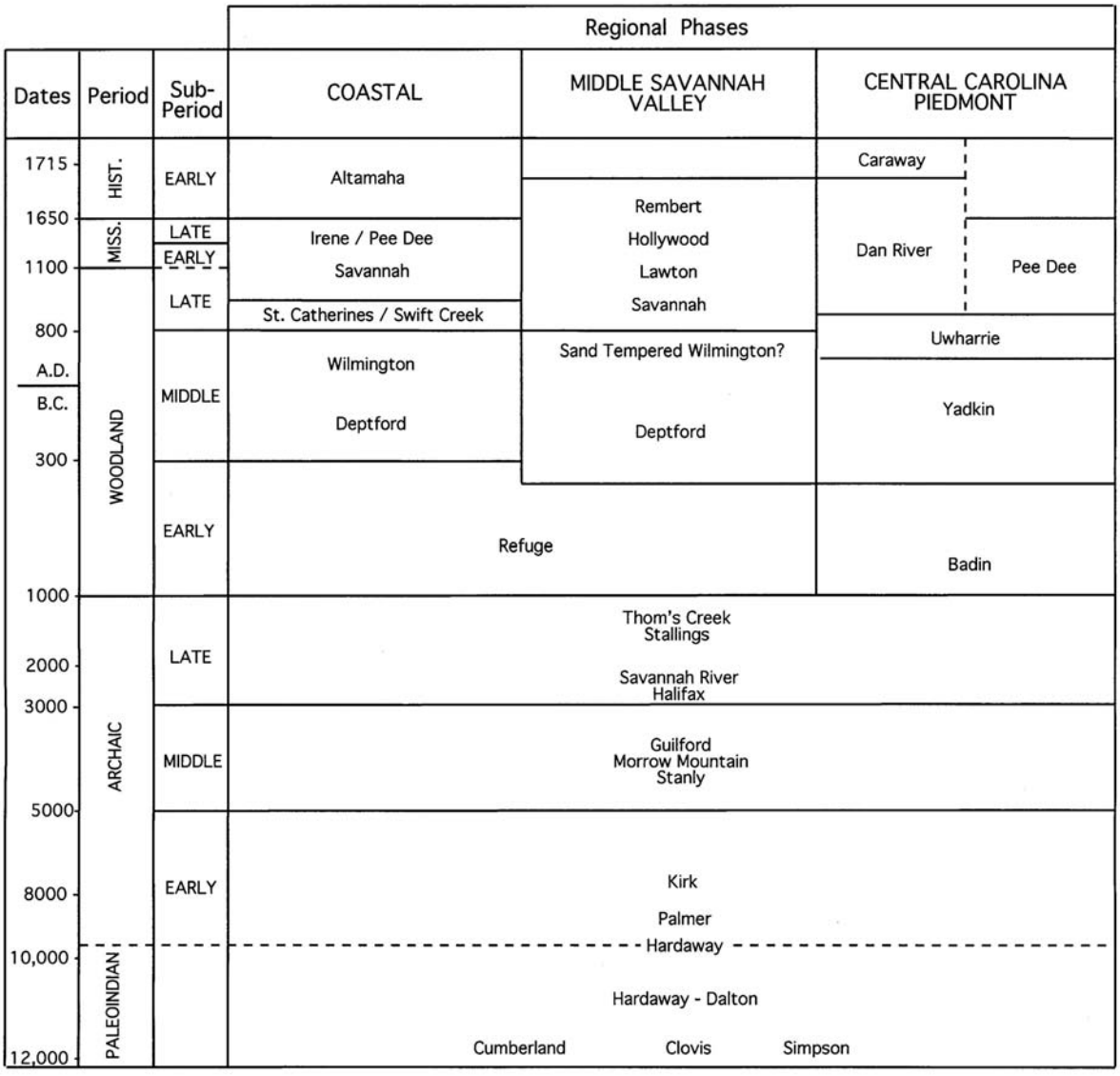

Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the Dillon County area. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched, side-notched, and broad stemmed projectile points, are common in the vicinity, although they are rarely found in good, well-preserved contexts.

The Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast and much later in the Carolina Piedmont, about 500 B.C. It should be noted that many researchers call the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2000 to 500 B.C. was a period of tremendous change.

The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from some coastal sites indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable. Further inland it seems likely that many Native American groups continued the previous established patterns of band mobility. These frequent moves would allow the groups to take advantage of various seasonal resources, such as shad and sturgeon in the spring, nut masts in the fall, and turkeys during the winter.

The South Appalachian Mississippian period, from about A.D. 1100 to A.D. 1640 is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest coastal phases are named the Savannah and Irene (known as Pee Dee further inland) (A.D. 1200 to 1550).

The Protohistoric Period

The principal secondary sources for the Native Americans of South Carolina are Mooney (1894), Hodge (1910), and Swanton (1952), although a variety of other authors have offered additional insights (see sources such as Brown 1963, Milling 1969, and Rights 1947). Most recently Wilson (1983) has reviewed a wide range of primary and secondary sources, integrating archaeological investigations, and synthesizing the available information. His study, while concentrating on the Siouan Hill tribes of North Carolina and Virginia, is of particular relevance to our understanding of South Carolina's protohistoric and early historic inhabitants. This brief review, however, will offer only a generalized version and Wilson (1983) should be consulted for more detailed information (especially for critical reviews of the earlier secondary sources).

The first Native American groups to make contact with the English settlers and explorers were the "feeble and unwarlike coast tribes" (Gregorie 1926), such as the Cussoes, Wandos, Wineaus, Etiwans, and Sewees. In the Dillon County area, it is likely that the Sara (later Cheraw) comprised the most significant group. A number of authors (see both Leacock 1971 and Wilson 1983) have used a series of discrete episodes, documented through ethnographic and archaeological research, to characterize "Indian history."

During the Late Prehistoric (Leacock's Phase I), the proto-Siouan cultures of the southern Piedmont came into contact with the expanding Muckhogean Pee Dee phase of central South Carolina. According to Wilson (1983) this interaction was most intense along the lower Catawba/upper Wateree and lower Yadkin/upper Pee Dee drainages, where the polity came to be known by the Spanish as the Issa or Yssa in the sixteenth century and as the Essaw or Ushery to the English of the late seventeenth century. By the eighteenth century, the group was known as the Catawba. Wilson suggests that the Issa and the Indians of the Wateree/Catawba drainage were members of the "Grand Chiefdom of Cofitachequi." The second phase, a period of early direct or indirect contact, lasted from the sixteenth century until about 1670, with the founding of a permanent English settlement at Charleston, South Carolina. During this second phase, a variety of changes occurred. Cross-drainage contact increased, initially encouraged by Spanish and later English contacts. A variety of new traits, such as the shaft and chamber grave, were introduced from outside the region. Epidemic disease spread throughout the region, devastating the Native American population and causing extensive disruption in the native culture. Wilson (1983) suggests that the situation encountered by Juan Pedro two and a half decades after De Soto, is indicative of the early decline of the "Pee Dee" core of Cofitachequi and the

growing importance of the Issa. Contact between the Piedmont Siouan groups and the English or Spanish was uncommon and primarily through Indian middlemen, such as the Occaneechi or Tuscarora.

The next phase of the Historic Period, termed Phase II by Leacock, is a period of direct contact by the English with the Siouan groups. Periodic epidemics swept through the Native American population and additional disruptions in native culture were caused by alcohol and the slave trade. Regardless, for nearly three decades, the Piedmont Siouan groups traded deer skins and furs to the English in South Carolina and Virginia.

The final phase, the period when Euro-American governmental control over the Native Americans was instituted, began in the first decade of the eighteenth century. During this period, the stresses of contact finally caused most of the non-Catawba groups, such as the Saponi and Occaneechi, moved to Fort Chrisana. Other groups, such as the Sara, maintained their independence and moved south to the upper Pee Dee River. In 1715, a census of Indian groups revealed that there were 510 "Saraws," although Mooney (1894) believes this number probably includes the Keyauwee as well. In 1737, the Sara (also known as the Cheraw by this time), who had the Pee Dee, Waxhaw, and Saxapahaw Indians incorporated with them, moved from the Pee Dee westward to join with the Catawba. In spite of this "incorporation" there is good evidence that the Sara maintained their own dialect and culture at least through the first third of the eighteenth century. By 1751, Governor James Glen reported the Sara "live peaceably within our Settlements" and "are Friends to the English." Among the Catawba, the Sara maintained their own village until all of the Indians were placed on a reservation in the 1760s under the direct control of the South Carolina government. By this time, there were only 50 or 60 Sara still living. This move ended the "history" of the Piedmont Indian groups during what we term as the Historic Period.

Into this discussion Stokes offers an interesting sidebar discussion concerning the "Croatan" Indians that is worthy of brief mention in these discussions:

> For many years considerable speculation has been made about the origin and identity of the "Croatans" or "Croatan Indians" of Robeson County, North Carolina. Some of these people have migrated across the line into the adjoining Dillon area and live there today. One conjecture is that the Charraw intermingled with other Indians and their descendants eventually formed this group. Another supposition, and the most romantic, is that these people are the descendants of Indians and the survivors of Sir Walter Raleigh's famous "Lost Colony." There are numerous other theories, none of which has been substantiated, and the Croatan puzzle remains a mystery. As far as been determined, the Charraw [Sara] were the original Indian inhabitants of present Dillon and the tribe is extinct today (Stokes 1978:28).

Swanton was the first to suggest that while the bulk of the Keyauwee were likely incorporated with the Catawba, some "of their descendants are represented among the Robeson County Indians, often miscalled Croatan" (Swanton 1952:81). Regrettably, Swanton offers no evidence for this assertion, regardless the view caught the attention of the public and accounts such as the one offered in the WPA Guide became common:

> In Dillon County live a number of Croatans, a peculiar and primitive people, the majority of whom are found in North Carolina. Ethnologists assert

> they are racially a mixture of Indian, pioneer white, and Negro . . . . Only in recent years have the Croatans been benefited by schools and social agencies which have taken cognizance of their isolation and penetrated their ancient resentment (Work Projects Administration 1988[1941]:464-465).

While the exact background of this group is still under investigation, Stokes is correct that the Robeson County groups had little, if any, impact on either the prehistory or early history of the Dillon area.

Historical Synopsis

What is today known as Dillon County was originally part of Craven County and subsequently part of Parish of Saint James Santee when it was created in 1706. The area next was divided to form the northern tips of both the Parishes of Prince George Winyah and Prince Frederick, formed in 1721 and 1734 respectively from a section of Saint James Santee. Later Dillon formed part of the George Town District Court when it was established in 1769, later becoming Liberty County with the subdivision of the George Town District in 1785. The name was changed into Marion District in 1798 and then Marion County in 1868 (Stokes 1978).

When the historic resources of this portion of South Carolina are examined, few pre-date the late nineteenth century. Latta, Dillon County's second largest town, was developed in an area previously known as Nellie's Field. Like the town of Dillon, Latta began in 1887 with the building of the new rail line (Anonymous 1970). Dillon's other major community, Lake View, was incorporated in 1907 as Page's Mill, although the name was changed to Lake View in 1916. Older resources include the Cotton Press Farm, five miles west of Latta on S-38, portions of which date to 1791 when it was build by John Hayes. The Bear Swamp Baptist Church is situated on the site of a meeting house built in 1785 on the north bank of Bear Swamp at a point midway between Fayetteville, North Carolina and Georgetown, South Carolina. The original meeting house burned in 1825 and rebuilt in 1830-1831 (Anonymous 1970). The W.C. Parham House, of two-story frame construction, is thought to have been constructed ca. 1840 by Woodward Manning (Simpson 1984).

The Dillon region was described by the Methodist bishop, Francis Asbury, in glowing terms during the post-Revolutionary period:

> We crossed Little Pee Dee at the Potato Bed Ferry. Beautiful deep sands, live oaks, lofty pines, palmetto swamps, with intermingled gums and laurel, and twining Jessamine flinging its odours far and wide around; lawns and savannahs such is the country, and such the charming scenes through which we have frequently passed in our late rides (quoted in Stokes 1978:7).

And while this description is indeed romantic, Stokes comments that:

> However inspiring this prospect is today . . . the dense foliage and lush growth of the bogs and marshy river lowlands greatly impeded the actual settlement and subsequent cultivation of the region in South Carolina's colonial period . . . rivers and streams were extensively used as arteries of travel and transportation in the lowcountry of South Carolina. But the meandering watercourses of the Pee Dee and its tributaries were all bordered by morasses choked with wiry vegetation that were the habitat of alligators, dangerous reptiles, and pestilent

insects, making access to and from the streams exceedingly difficult (Stokes 1978:8).

A northern visitor perhaps said it more succinctly:

> South Carolina, at least the region traversed by railway, is the most miserable country I ever saw. Swamp, swamp, swamp, all day long. No villages, no houses, no inhabitants, no garden fields, nothing but an interminable swamp. Every half-hour we stop in the middle of the swamp (Lyman Abbott quoted in Drago 1991:15).

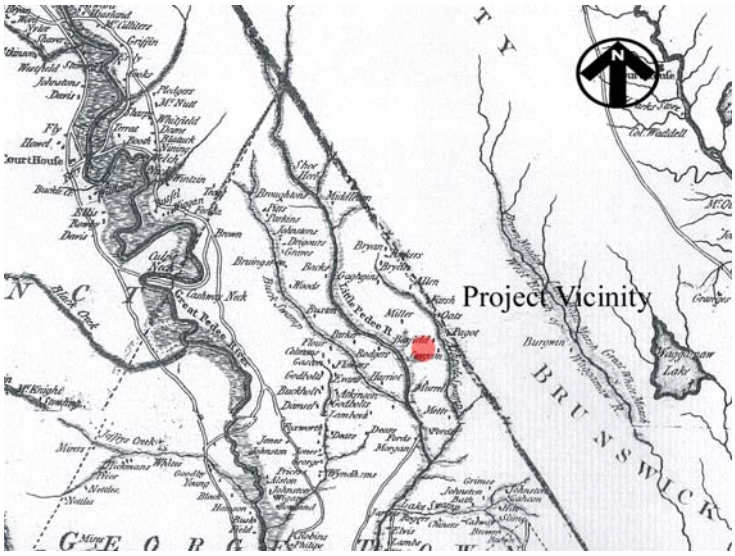

Figure 6. Portion of the 1775 Mouzon map showing the project vicinity.

Consequently, while the early settlement did focus on the Great and Little Pee Dee and their tributaries as both transportation and communication routes, the process was slow and settlements were sparse. The earliest settlers entered the region, primarily from North Carolina and Virginia, during the mid-eighteenth century (Dudley 1978). The 1775 Mouzon map (Figure 6) documents this pattern of early settlement in Dillon County, with a focus on inland creeks with easy access to the major rivers. It is only during the nineteenth century that maps begin to show settlement expanding along the developing road systems.

Settlement during the early eighteenth century was also hampered by the remote location of Dillon, which isolated it from other sections of the Carolina backcountry. The two principal trade routes from Charleston into Virginia – one west of the Great Pee Dee towards Charlotte, the other along the coast through Georgetown and Wilmington – skirted Dillon to the east and west, providing little direct access to the region (Stokes 1978). The backcountry lands were often purchased for speculation, although those who settled the region probably first participated in the simple economy beef production – allowing cattle to range through swamplands. This required little capital and could be accomplished with little labor. Later it is likely that the region participated in indigo cultivation, although it seems certain that semisubsistence farming was always the primary occupation.

While geographically part of the Coastal Plain, the Dillon and Pee Dee region continued to be too remote and isolated from the seat of government in Charleston during the early eighteenth century to feel the "taming influences of church and state" (King 1981:7). More to the point, however, there were a variety of serious complaints the Pee Dee region (as well as the rest of the "lower middle country") had with Charleston. These included both a lack of adequate law enforcement as well as economic policies, which hurt the region. These problems created a division between the wealthy planters of Charleston and the small farmers more typical of the interior. In the wake of what many called broken trust, the Regulator movement was created, dominating Dillon like other regions of the backcountry (see Brown 1963).

By the time the Regulators disbanded they had achieved considerable success in reforming

the political and economic structure of the region. The Circuit Court Act of 1769 established a system of courts, jails, and sheriffs in four newly created backcountry judicial districts. They had also succeeded in electing six of their candidates to the colonial assembly. Regulations on deer hunting were passed, and many of the Regulators were pardoned for various offenses. Certainly it helped that prominent lowcountry planters were also expanding their own economic interests into the backcountry. Klein (1990) notes that while deep suspicions still existed between the sections, there was an increasing awareness of the powerful economic interests that were drawing the regions closer together.

One of these interests was the brewing revolution. Like other areas dominated by Regulator philosophies, when the American Revolution began, there was very little enthusiasm for the goal of freedom from Britain in the Dillon area. In fact, it wasn't politics of the realm, but the politics of confiscation that eventually goaded the upcountry residents into the war. Neutrality faded with the increasingly common "predatory incursions" of Tories from the Scotch settlements in the Cape Fear Valley (Stokes 1978:32). Three skirmishes were fought in the general Dillon area. The first was the attack on Brown's Regiment in Bear Swamp on October 30, 1780. The second, at Catfish Creek near Hulin's Mill, later known as Bass' Mill, occurred in April 1781. The third, in August 1781, was the battle fought near the Great Pee Dee and Marsh Creek in both Marion and Dillon counties (Stokes 1978).

Another interest drawing together the backcountry and lowcountry was slavery. In 1760 the entire backcountry had on 2,417 African American slaves, representing 4% of the total slave population in Carolina. In contrast, the lowcountry contained 44,501 slaves, representing at least 77% of the total slave population of Carolina (Klein 1990:20). In order to expand production and enter the colonywide trade pattern, some backcountry planters were expanding their slave holdings. By 1768, about one-twelfth of South Carolina's slaves lived in the backcountry, where they represented about 20% of the population. In the early 1770s, a wealthy Charleston slave merchant, Peter Manigault, remarked that:

> The great Planters have bought few Negroes within these two Years. Upwards of two thirds that have been imported have gone backwards. These people some of them come at the Distance of 300 miles from Chs Town, and will not go back without Negroes, let the Price be what it will. And indeed they can afford it, for it is no uncommon Thing among them to make 150 wt of Indigo to a Hand, and Even at the present price of Indigo and Help, as their Lands cost them little they can well afford to pay £450 for a Negro (quoted in Klein 1990:20).

Even before the Revolution the backcountry's wealthiest slave holders were concentrated below the fall line, in the region that would later be termed the "middle country" and that contained today's Dillon County. This middle territory provided somewhat easier access to markets and formed a transition zone into the "true" backcountry. In 1770, the 221 plantations of the middlecountry had 1,432 slaves compared to the 177 slaves on the 83 upcountry plantations. The top quintile of the middlecountry plantations had a value of £274,103, compared to only £50,412 for the top quintile of upcountry estates (Klein 1990:22). Into the early 1800s the middlecountry, and especially the Cheraws region, remained transitional between the predominately slave owning lowcountry and the yeoman upcountry. Slaves in the middlecountry composed about a third of the whole population and slave holders composed about a third of all households.

Cotton, while making inroads and creating a greater demand for African American slaves in some middlecountry regions (especially

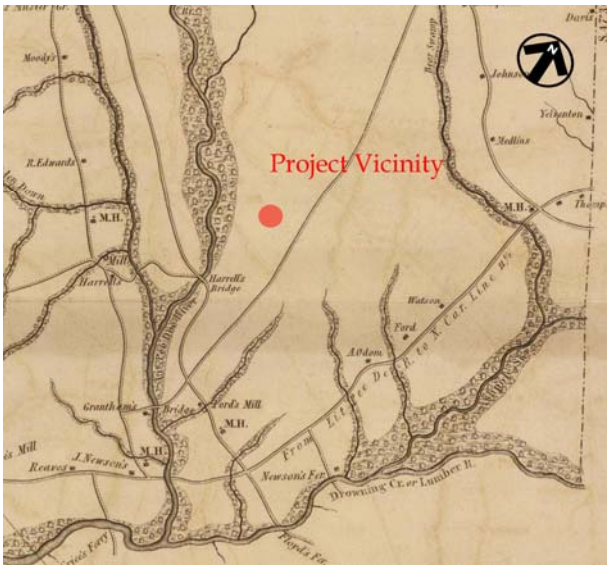

Figure 7. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area in the Marion District.

around Camden where a new plantation elite was developing), had relatively little impact on the Cheraws or Dillon area. For example, while the slave population increased 139% from 5,519 to 13,202 between 1790 and 1800 in the Camden area, it increased only 51% in the Cheraws, where the number of slaves grew from 3,229 to 4,877. By 1810, there were 6,079 slaves in the Cheraw region, an increase of only 25% from 1800 (Klein 1990).

In the early nineteenth century, Robert Mills remarked that Marion (then containing the land that would later form Dillon County) was noted for its swamps, which offered the most productive, richest soils, especially compared to the upland, which was sandy. When reclaimed and "secured from freshets" the swamps brought $50 an acre, compared to only $1 an acre for the upland pine lands (Mills 1972[1826]:623). Plantations, while not common, planted cotton, corn, potatoes, and wheat. The 1826 Mills' *Atlas* for the Marion District shows no settlements in the project area (Figure 7).

In 1850, Marion County was inhabited by 9,781 whites and 7.520 blacks, although the county exhibits a relatively modest standing when its agricultural production is examined. Marion ranked 17th (out of 29) in cotton production, with a yield of 8,680 bales (or 3,472,000 pounds) of ginned cotton and 17th in corn production, with 476,718 bushels. Only 817 pounds of tobacco and 2,986 bushels of wheat were produced. Marion did, however, rank in the top 10 rice producing counties, with 513,825 pounds largely being harvested from inland swamps (DeBow 1854).

The Civil War was relatively gentle on the Pee Dee region, although Sherman's troops traveled through the valleys of both Pee Dees in 1868, causing extensive damage and loss (Stokes 1978). After the Civil War and the emancipation of the large slave population, the plantation system as it existed prior to the war was radically altered through the adoption of labor contracts and later cash tenancy. In many respects the labor contracts established a new form of slavery – being as strict as bondage and offering as little hope of economic and social freedom. A typical labor contract after the war required black laborers to perform "any and all kinds of work usually done on a plantation" and "to stay on the place all the time." The laborers were required to:

> Get up at daybreak and do such small jobs about the house that are to be done before Breakfast, to have their Breakfast eat and ready to go at regular work by the time the sun is fully up and work all day except one hour and a half for Dinner from the 1st of May until the 1st of October and one hour for Dinner the balance of the year (Stokes 1978:95).

Furthermore, parents were required to "see that their children work," and to assume accountability for their offspring if they lost or broke tools or damaged the farm animals by abuse. A typical contract gave blacks "sixty bushels of corn, and board for himself wife & six children with three suits of clothing during the year and Leather enough to make himself wife and Their oldest children one pair of shoes" (Stokes 1978:95).

Sidney Andrews, a journalist who toured South Carolina in 1865, described the blacks in Marion District "orderly," even though they were "receiving what he considered starvation pay" (Stokes 1978:97). He also found the white landowners uncooperative in complying with their part of the contracts, often delaying payments after harvest, or refusing to provide promised provisions for minor infractions (Stokes 1978). This reaction to blacks was predictable – in 1869 the local newspaper, the *Star*, remarked "THE OWNERS OF THE SOIL MUST CONTROL THE LABOR" and added, "Those who own the soil should govern it." Eventually the Jim Crow laws codified a new form of black slavery that lasted well into the twentieth century.

Efforts to recover after the Civil War were hindered not only by the repressive nature of Southern whites, but by an associated slump in agricultural production that dramatically reduced cash flow. In 1870, the Marion area produced only 5,267 bales of cotton, down by nearly 40%. Corn production, as an indicator of subsistence rather than cash farming, was down by 50%. Some recovery was taking place by 1890, when corn production was up to 401,788 bushels, although this was still 16% less than the 1850 corn production. Cotton, however, was up to 25,993 bales – an increase over 1850 levels by nearly 200% (Stokes 1978).

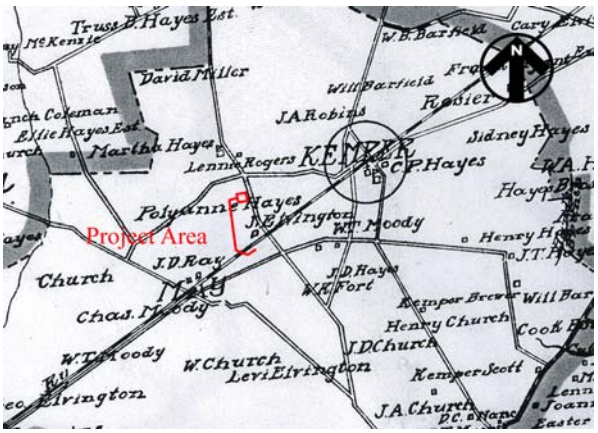

Figure 8. Portion of a 1919-1920 map showing the project area.

By the 1880s, Marion's agricultural system was reportedly dominated by wage labor, although at least 500 farms were "rented" by blacks and another 1,000 farms were worked by blacks (*The News and Courier* 1884). In addition to agriculture, the county also boasted 90 flour and grist mills, 31 lumber mills, 22 turpentine stills, and one foundry. Stokes (1978) observes that while industries such as turpentine and rosin production provided relatively little income, they were steady. The greatest problem, however, remained transportation and getting items to the lowcountry markets. Consequently, settlement and economic growth remained sparse and poor until the development of the Atlantic Coastline Railroad between 1887 and 1888. The Atlantic Coast Line Railroad wanted to join its lines between North Carolina and Florence and while the shortest route was via Little Rock (northwest of present Dillon), right-of-way could not be acquired. A local resident, James W. Dillon, offered the rail line half interest in an alternate route with the single stipulation being that a stop be established in the vicinity of what is today Dillon (Anonymous 1970). Commenting on the new town of Dillon, one observer remarked that:

> His municipal namesake is a town of wide streets that begin in fields of tobacco, cotton, and wheat and end at the courthouse, which covers the site of Revolutionary war skirmishes. Produce flows in to be shipped to Eastern and Northern markets by rail or truck. A textile mill and other factories have brought industrial interests into this farming area. Older residents remember when the business section was a pond where they caught trout, redbreast, and bream (Work Projects Admin-istration 1988[1941]:464).

Into the twentieth century, Marion continued to be a rather sleepy county. By 1900, the population was only 35,181. In the first decade of the twentieth century cotton was planted on

Figure 9. Portion of the 1931 Soil Survey of Dillon County showing the project area.

32,904 acres, second only to corn and producing 31,488 bales (there were even two cotton mills in the county). Tobacco, made popular by the adoption of bright leaf flue-cured varieties, was planted on 7,336 acres and produced 6,145,000 pounds (Watson 1907).

Incorporation in February 1910 established Dillon as a separate political and judicial entity from Marion County. Resulting from complaints primarily centered on transportation problems and the distance from the county seat, this step established a more "manageable" county encompassing about half the acreage of previous Marion County. One of the earliest surveys of the new county, "Map of Dillon County, South Carolina," compiled by Otis M. Page in 1919-1920 shows the project area in the vicinity of J. Elvington and Polyanne Hayes (Figure 8).

Dudley (1978) noted that the population of Dillon steadily declined in the first third of the twentieth century, largely the result of a depressed economy and poor agricultural practices, which caused extensive sheet erosion. It was only in the second half of this century that the population steadied and once again began to increase. By 1921 there were 60,000 acres in cotton producing 35,000 bales and 31,000 acres planted in corn with a yield of 589,000 bushels (Stokes 1978).

The 1931 soil survey for Dillon County (Figure 9) and the 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Dillon County* (Figure 10) show structures in the vicinity, however, no structures are shown in the project area.

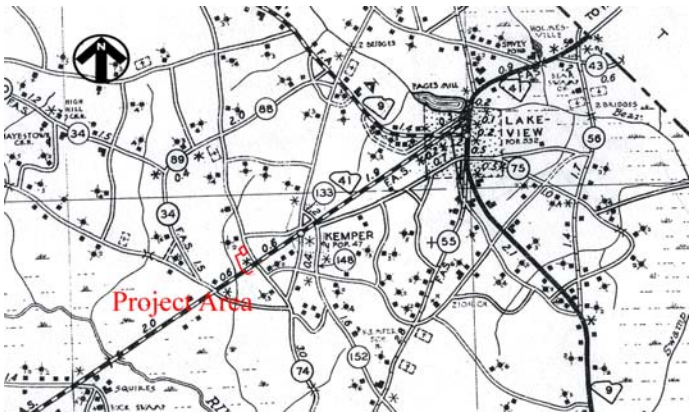

Figure 10. Portion of the 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Dillon County* showing the project area.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along the center line of the corridor which has a 75-foot right-of-way. Transects would be placed along Rabbit Island Road (S-74) from north to south in the proposed substation lot (Figure 11). Shovel tests would be implemented at 100-foot intervals to the west.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with no significant modifications. A total of 29 shovel tests were excavated along the corridor. A total of 33 shovel tests were excavated within the proposed substation lot. These shovel tests include 13 tests at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals plus an additional 20 shovel tests excavated at 50-foot intervals to delineate the identified site.

The GPS positions were taken with a WAAS enabled Garmin 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in

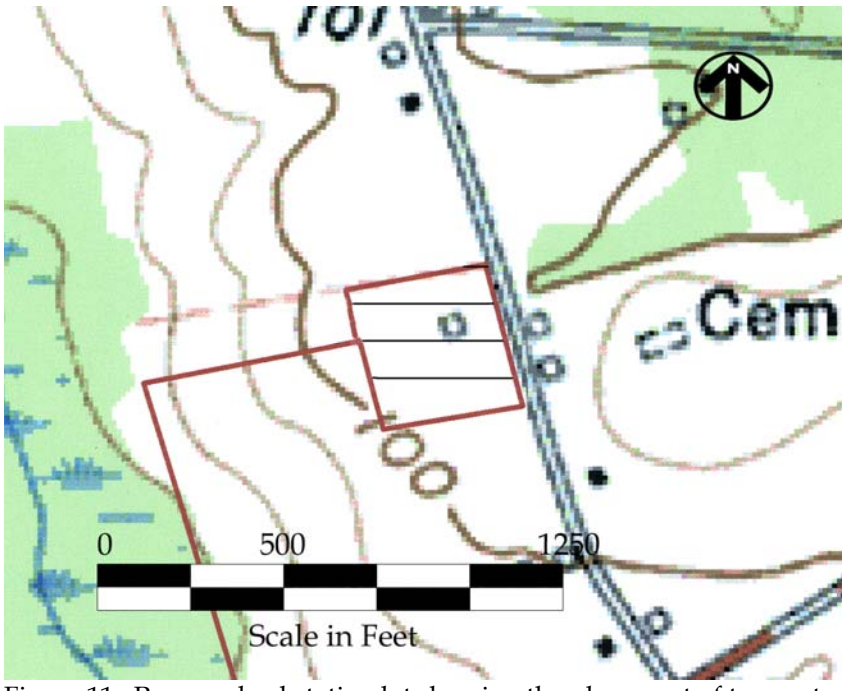

Figure 11. Proposed substation lot showing the placement of transects.

difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. WAAS, or Wide Area Augmentation System, is a system of satellites and ground stations that provide GPS signal corrections, yielding higher position accuracy – generally an accuracy of 10 feet or better 95% of the time.

Figure 12. View of the existing Kemper Substation that will be retired.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey would record only those which has retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs would be taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and

a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. that embody the distinctive

> characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

> ▪ identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
>
> ▪ identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
>
> ▪ identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;
>
> ▪ evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
>
> ▪ identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials -- the physical items used on and in the property -- are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation

laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. The site form for the identified archaeological site has been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis of collections followed professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of historic remains follow such authors as Price (1979) and South (1977).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey, one site, 38DN166**,** was identified (Figure 13). The site consists of a scatter of late nineteenth to twentieth century artifacts associated with a tenant structure. The remains of the structure are in ruinous condition on the property. Because the site lacks the quality and quantity of remains needed to address significant research questions about tenant life, the site is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

The architectural survey failed to identify any structures that would be potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. One structure within sight of the project area was recorded, however, due to the age of the house. The house has been extensively modified and does not retain the integrity that is needed to be eligible for the National Register.

Archaeological Resource

38DN166

Location: Zone 17; 664389E 3799404N (NAD27 datum)
Elevation: 100 feet AMSL
Component: Late nineteenth to mid-twentieth century tenant site
Size: 150 feet by 150 feet
Nearest water source: Mile Branch about 0.2 mile to the west
Previous disturbance: Area has been cultivated until very recently, however, cultivation has avoided the ruins of the house
Landform location: Ridge nose
Vegetation: Fallow fields with young undergrowth

Site Description

Site 38DN166 is located in the area proposed for a new substation (Figure 14). It ranges in age from the late nineteenth to the mid-twentieth century. The site is located on a ridge nose, which overlooks Mile Branch to the west. Although the area has been under cultivation for many years, the remains from a tenant structure

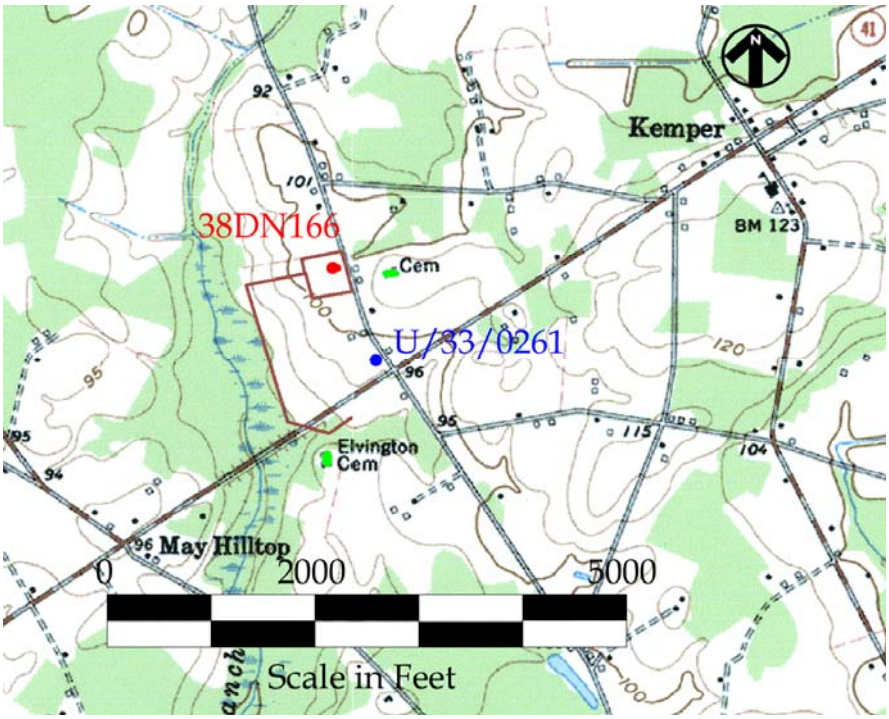

Figure 13. Topographic map showing the location of the identified archaeological and architectural resources (house in blue, cemeteries in green).

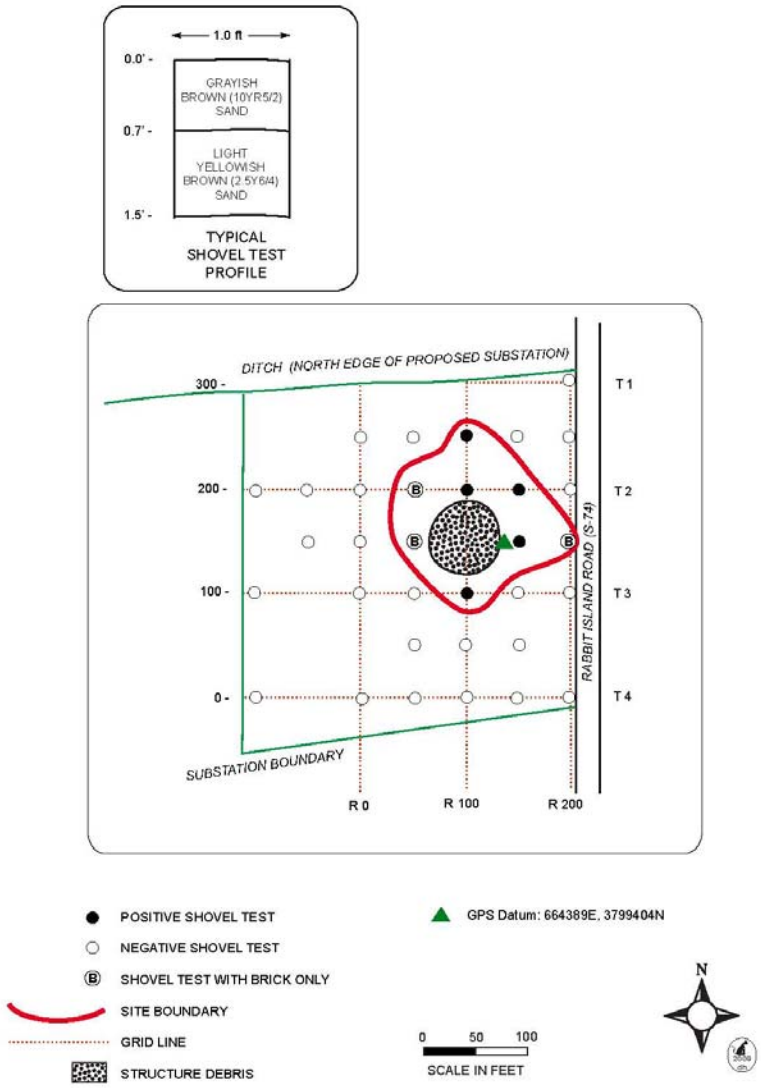

Figure 14. Sketch map and typical soil profile for the site.

are still located on the property (Figure 15).

Investigation Methods

The site was originally identified by the structure remains in the area. Shovel testing was performed at 50-foot intervals in the cardinal directions around the debris until two consecutive negative tests were encountered. A total of 29 shovel tests were excavated in the vicinity of the structure with five (17%) positive. An additional three (10%) shovel tests contained only brick.

Shovel test profiles produced soils typical of Fuquay sand. This well drained soil has an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) sandy loam to a depth of 0.7 foot over a light yellowish brown (2.5Y6/4) sand that can extend to a depth of 2.8 feet.

Figure 15. View of the structural remains of 38DN166.

Artifacts

A total of nine historic artifacts were recovered from the site. The results can be seen in Table 1. Only one clear artifact group is represented by shovel tests– Kitchen, however, brick and the remains of the house are also present, which account for the Architecture Group.

One piece of ceramic was found in the assemblage – undecorated whiteware. Whiteware has a mean ceramic date (MCD) of 1860, although some whiteware can produce more modern dates – into the twentieth century.

The remainder of the artifacts consist of glass. Clear glass was most common, which cannot be dated. A piece of cobalt and milk glass was also found, both of which date to the nineteenth century (Jones and Sullivan 1985:14).

Table 1.
Artifacts from 38DN166

	100 R100	150 R150	200 R100	200 R150	250 R100	Total
Kitchen Group						
Whiteware, undec.			1			
Glass, clear	1		1	1	1	
Glass, cobalt			1			
Glass, milk		1				
Total						**7**

As previously mentioned, brick was found in small quantities in shovel tests. The remains of the house also remain on the property, but we were unable to ascertain information about the construction and visual description of the structure. Dense vegetation cover the ruins.

Summary and NRHP Evaluation

Evaluation of this site's potential for listing on the National Register of Historic Places should be based on factors such as archaeological site integrity, data sets present, and potential to contribute meaningful research.

A family member of the former property owner remembers that the structure was abandoned by the 1960s (Mr. Danny Sellers, personal communication 2009). In fact, the only map we have obtained showing the structure is the modern Lake View 7.5' topographic map dated 1962 (see Figure 13). Even by this time, the structure is indicated as uninhabited. The structure is not shown on the 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Dillon County* suggesting that the site post-dates 1938 and was abandoned by the early 1960s.

While the site appears to have good integrity – structure remains are present and the scatter of artifacts is well contained, very few data sets were found. The artifacts are common and do little to differentiate this tenant site from other tenant sites in the area. It is unlikely that the site will produce the quantity of quality of artifacts needed to address significant research questions about eighteenth to nineteenth century tenant life.

Consequently, the site is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activities are recommended pending the review and concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office.

Historic and Architectural Resources

As previously discussed, there are no previously recorded National Register buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. One structure (U/33/0261) within sight of the project area was recorded, however, given the early date of the core of the house (Figure 16).

The frame structure, located at the corner of Rabbit Island Road (S-74) and SC 41, has a historic L-shaped core with cross gable roof. A hip porch is located along the full façade of the one story house. Two chimneys are found, one on each side of the house.

Mr. Danny Sellers (personal communication 2009) grew up in the house and estimated the age to be between 150 to 200 years old, however extensive modifications make it difficult to properly access the age.

For example, aluminum siding was added to the house in the 1960-70s

Figure 16. Views of U/33/0261.

along with a synthetic siding covering the foundation. Only a few years ago Mr. Sellers "covered the chimneys" and "redid the porch" (personal communication 2009). The chimneys had been stuccoed over because, according to Mr. Sellers, the brick was falling. It is unclear to what extent the porch had been modified. Two other modifications to the house include a rear addition and a carport attached to the left elevation, although the date these were added is unknown.


Figure 17. View of U/33/0261 from the proposed substation.

Other modernizing features include composite shingles on the roof and storm windows. Mr. Sellers also mentioned that he "covered the eaves," which extended the shingles to the edge of the roof.

Although the house has been extensively modified, the structure appears to have stayed in the same family since its construction (Mr. Danny Sellers, personal communication 2009). A 1919-1920 map of Dillon County (see Figure 8) shows the structure belonging to J. Elvington. Mr. Sellers thought that might refer to his Uncle Jasper, who lived in the house around that time. Mr. Sellers could not recall the last name of Uncle Jasper (and Aunt Cecile), but knew that Elvington was a family name. Mr. Sellers' grandparents, who lived in the house after Uncle Jasper and Aunt Cecile have the surname Barfield (which can be seen on the 1775 Mouzon map of Figure 6), which is also a common name in the area. Mr. Sellers' parents now live in the house, while Mr. Sellers himself has recently moved back to help his parents.


Figure 18. View of Elvington Cemetery.

Although a more detailed historic account for the property may be interesting to the community, the structure itself shows very little resemblance to what it would have looked like historically. It is unlikely that the house would be

eligible for the National Register, however, the current project is, at its closest, more than 0.1 mile (about 600 feet) away, so should not provide any visual obtrusion more than the closer, existing substation already exhibits. Figure 17 shows the house from the proposed substation.

Other Resources

Two other resources that should be mentioned given their proximity to the project area are Elvington Cemetery, about 300 feet south of the transmission line, and an unnamed cemetery, about 400 feet east of the proposed new substation.

Figure 19. One of at least three wood markers at Elvington Cemetery.

Elvington Cemetery dates from c. 1881 to the present and contains about 50-60 graves (Figure 18). Some of the names on the stones include Elvington, Rogers, Church, and Hayes – all common on historic maps acquired for this project. Other names include Price, Thompson, Johnson, and Dew. A large portion of the cemetery includes modern granite tombstones, but older, late nineteenth and early twentieth century markers are also present. An interesting feature of this cemetery is the presence of at least three wood markers (Figure 19).

Figure 20. View of cemetery from the proposed transmission corridor (just past the truck).

No recommendation of eligibility has been attempted for this cemetery. The cemetery appears to be a common style of rural settings, however, no effort in researching names was assumed as part of this study.

The current transmission route does not appear to be visually intrusive to the cemetery. The area where the line is running is wooded and only a small area, about 15 feet or the width of the driveway to the cemetery, will show the line (Figure 20). In addition, the existing substation and transmission lines can already be seen from the cemetery (Figure 21). The area around the southern and eastern portion of the cemetery is cultivated, but the cemetery, which has no fence around the perimeter, appears to be

consistently delineated by farming practices.

The other cemetery is located across Rabbit Island Road (S-74) from the proposed new substation. It dates from c.1855 to the present and contains about 50-60 graves (Figure 22). Common names in the cemetery that can also be seen on historic maps include Hayes, Moody, Page, Rogers, and Barfield. While this cemetery dates earlier than the nearby Elvington Cemetery, the modern granite tombstones overshadow the earlier marble markers.

Figure 21. View of the existing substation and transmission line from Elvington Cemetery.

No recommendation of eligibility has been attempted for the cemetery. Like the previous cemetery, this type of cemetery is a common style for rural settings. No effort is performing research on the people buried here was attempted as part of this study.

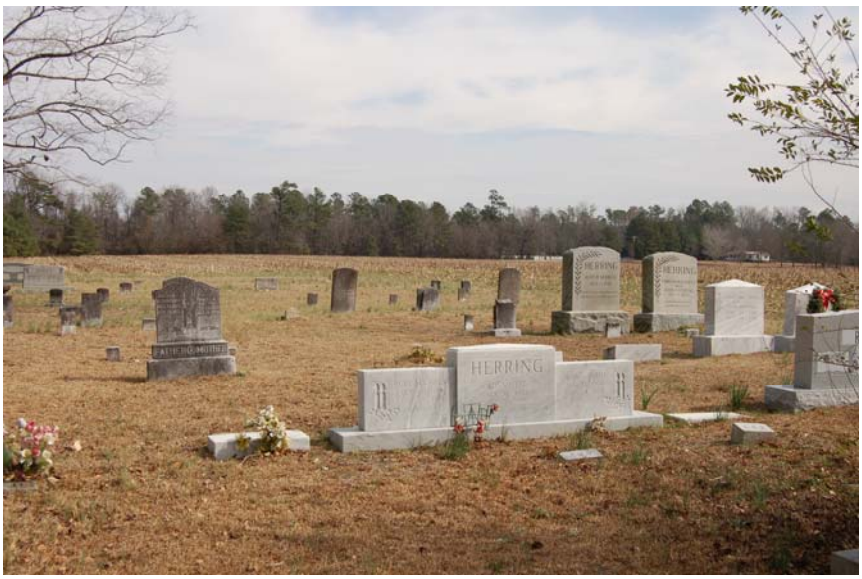

Figure 22. View of the cemetery across from the proposed substation.

Although there is a clearer view between this cemetery and the proposed substation, there is an existing transmission line that has already affected the visual integrity of the cemetery (Figure 23). Two barns are also located in the field of view between the cemetery and the proposed substation. A small dirt road does lead up to the cemetery, but cultivation does occur almost entirely around the perimeter. No fence marks the outer boundaries of the cemetery, but it seems consistently marked out by years of cultivation. It is unlikely that the new substation will have any further affect on the cemetery.

Figure 23. View of the cemetery from the proposed substation.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 3.2 acres of land for a substation and a 0.5 mile corridor in eastern Dillon County. This work, conducted for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project tract and is intended to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation one site (38DN166) was identified. This is a late eighteenth to nineteenth century tenant site. It is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places for the sparse quantity and poor research potential of remains.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile revealed no structures that retain the integrity for the National Register of Historic Places. One structure, U/33/026, was recorded, however, due to its age and proximity to the current project. Due to extensive modifications, it is unlikely that the house would be eligible for the National Register, but the current transmission project will not affect the structure, so no evaluation was performed.

Two cemeteries were also noted within sight of the project area. No determination of eligibility was made for the cemeteries, but the proposed transmission project should not affect the visual integrity of the cemeteries further than existing transmission lines and substations already do.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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